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ABSTRACT

An experiment was conducted to evaluate the impact of television viewing on three communities with differing amounts of exposure to television--one community with five years of experience, one with one year of experience, and one with no television experience. An attempt was made to interview half of the families in each town with children under the age of 12, with the intention of evaluating the following: (1) the nature of their television viewing experience, (2) the importance of television relative to other media, and (3) television's impact on their daily activities. Data were collected on viewing patterns, program preferences, taste, quality, perceived effects, importance relative to other media, day-to-day activity patterns, and the function of television. Results showed that television is a major change agent in patterns of daily life. Responses from the community with high television experience were more critical of the effects of television and rated its importance lower than the responses from the community with low experience. Questionnaires and data summaries are not included. (EMH)

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TELEVISION DIFFUSION AND SOCIAL BEHAVIOUR IN THREE COMMUNITIES: A FIELD EXPERIMENT

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Television's impact on the social behaviour of children and adults is a topic which has aroused intense research interest since the inauguration of the medium. Many of the major early studies such as those of Himmelweit, Oppenheim and Vince (1958) in Great Britain, Schramm Lyle and Parker (1961) in North America, and Furu (1962) in Japan, have been focused on various aspects of the impact of television on children. Other studies, such as those of Corfin (1955) in the United States and Belson (1967) in England, have investigated adult's use of television.

These early studies were designed to assess the broad effects of television in terms of the availability of this new medium, in competition with older media. More recent studies, conducted after television had become an established medium, have been focused on the effects of specific television content (Murray, 1973) and/or the perceived functions of television (Blumler & Katz, 1974; McQuail, Blumler & Brown, 1972). The early studies provided information on the "displacement effects" that occur when television is in competition with the established media. However, these displacement effects may be affected by factors related to the "diffusion" of television, such as the changing available content, perceived functions and the extent

and duration of the viewer's experience with television. Therefore, the present study is designed to evaluate the impact of television in several communities with differing states of television diffusion.

Displacement Effects

The results of several early studies have indicated that the extent of television's displacement effects tends to be marked by activities that are media-related or "functionally equivalent". Thus, in studies of children, television frequently displaces the time formerly devoted to radio listening, reading comics or playing (Furu, 1962; Himmelweit, et al., 1958; Schramm, et al., 1961). Similarly, adults' television viewing is associated with decreases in reading, radio listening and visiting friends outside of one's home (Coffin, 1955; Belson, 1967). In addition, some researchers such as Belson have found increases in a few marginally media-related activities such as attendance at sporting events. A further description of the extent of displacement effects was provided by Robinson's (1972) analysis of the daily time budgets of television owners and non-owners who were participants in a UNESCO study of life patterns in 12 countries (Szalai, 1972). The variations described by Robinson extend beyond media-related activities and include both decreases and increases. For example, there were decreases in activities such as household care, personal grooming and a variety of social participation opportunities, accompanied by increases in time devoted to child care, consumer behaviour and at-home social contacts. In addition to descriptions of the extent of displacement effects, some researchers (Belson, 1967; Himmelweit, et al., 1958) have suggested that the duration

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of displacement effects may be limited. In other words, as television becomes more established and familiar, viewers may return to some of the activities which were abandoned in favour of television.

Functional Reorganization

The impact of television is not restricted to simple displacement of other social activities but also, as McLuhan (1964) suggests, to changes in one's view of the world and the medium of presentation. Indeed, Bower (1973), in a ten-year follow up of Steiner's (1963) study of American television viewers, suggests that the 1970 audience is becoming more sophisticated and critical of television. He notes that the experienced generation of viewers places increased emphasis on television's information role in contrast to entertainment. Furthermore, Katz, Gurevitch and Haas (1973), in studying the uses and gratifications of the mass media, suggest that audience members can, to some extent, use specific media to gratify particular types of needs. However, in the research to date, television has proved to be a rather ambiguous medium. For example, Kippax and Murray (1976) have found that television is used to gratify a wide variety of needs for information, entertainment and escape. But, in this latter study, the respondents were urban adults who had had extensive experience with a wide range of television programming. It is possible that differing levels of experience with television would be associated with variations in adults' conception of the functions of television in relation to other media. In this regard, Brown, Cramond and Wilde (1974), in studying changes in children's need gratification patterns following the introduction of television into a small Scottish

community, found that the availability of television provided a prime source of gratification for a wide variety of personal/social needs previously served by other media.

Displacement and Contextual Variation

The extent of displacement effects based upon studies contrasting television owners vs. non-owners (in communities where television is readily available) is difficult to interpret because, as Coffin (1955) and Robinson (1972) note, television owners may differ from non-owners on a variety of demographic characteristics (e.g., owners tend to be drawn from higher income households and families with young children). Furthermore, these differences are more pronounced when the ownership rate is small, as was the case in some of Robinson's (1972) survey sites. Similarly, ownership studies are not able to clearly describe changes in the duration of displacement effects that are independent of ownership characteristics (e.g., early adopters of television may differ from later adopters on a variety of demographic variables). Rather, it is important to contrast viewers and non-viewers who are drawn from contexts in which television availability is systematically varied.

The aim of the present study is to provide a description of the impact of television on adults' social behaviour in three communities with differing television experience. It is proposed that: a) adults' use and evaluation of television and other media should be related to the characteristics of his or her contemporary television experience; b) the availability of television should be associated with systematic variations in patterns of

daily activity; and c) the effects on both evaluations and life patterns should be greater for those for whom television is relatively novel.

Method

Three communities were selected for study on the basis of their relatively similar social structure but dissimilar contemporary experience with television: the High-TV town has had five years experience with two television channels (a national government-funded channel [2 yrs.] and a commercial channel [5 yrs.]); the Low-TV town had had one year experience with one channel (the national channel) and the No-TV town did not receive a television signal.

Television Variation

The national and commercial channels differ in character. The national channel, in addition to broadcasting traditional entertainment programmes, has a mandate to provide instructional and educational programmes for adults and children, including programmes specifically designed for use in schools. In this regard, it can be noted (see Table 2) that the national channel devotes approximately 34% of its total weekly broadcast time to specific educational/instructional programming, while the commercial channel devotes only 3% to this category. Similarly, news and documentary programming account for approximately 20% of the national channel's weekly output vs. 13% for the commercial channel. Moreover, the typical total weekly broadcast time is approximately 66% greater for the national vs. commercial channel (i.e., 98.8 hrs. vs. 59.5 hrs.).

Communities

Information obtained from the 1971 census indicates that these three communities do not significantly differ in terms of total population, housing conditions, ethnic composition and socio-economic level. Although there is some slight variation in educational level and family size, the social structure of these three communities is quite similar. Each town with a population between 2000-3000, serves as a rural trade centre. The towns are at least 500 kilometers from a capital city. There are no other towns or rural centres within a radius of approximately 250 kilometers.

Sample and Procedure

The basic sampling unit was families with young children (under 12 years). Families were emphasized in this study in order to obtain information on typical television households. The respondents were drawn from lists of families derived from electoral rolls, town canvassing, school enrolments and birth records. A 50% coverage of all families was attempted in each town. The towns were divided into geographical sectors and interviewers were instructed to sequentially contact, without callback, all families in each sector. Although there were unsuccessful interviews because the family was not at home, there were no refusals by any family contacted. The final, obtained sample and its relation to the estimated population of families in each of the three communities is as follows: High-TV town, 82 (40%); Low-TV town, 102 (40%); No-TV-town, 98 (52%). The demographic characteristics of the obtained samples closely parallel census statistics for each community and are relatively similar across all three towns. For example, in terms

of Congalton's (1969) scale, persons residing in these three towns are generally in the working- (levels 5,6,7) and middle- (levels 3,4) income levels (the proportion of fathers occupations in working income levels in each of the three communities is: High-TV, 64%; Low-TV, 64%; No-TV, 71%). Similarly, educational level, in all three communities, is typically that of partially completed secondary school.

Parents were interviewed in their homes and, when available, both mothers and fathers were interviewed. The number of mothers and fathers interviewed in each town is: High-TV, 76 mothers, 52 fathers; Low-TV, 95 mothers, 50 fathers; No-TV, 79 mothers, 52 fathers. There were two interview schedules: the first, consisting of life-style, demographic and household data was completed by either parent; the second, comprising perceived media functions, programme preferences and evaluations of television and other media, was completed by mothers and fathers separately. In addition, parents in the High-TV and Low-TV towns were asked to keep a diary of one weeks television viewing.

Results and Discussion

A description of the impact of television in these three towns will be focused upon three areas: the television viewing experience, evaluation of television and other media, and television's influence on daily activities. Subsequent reports will explore, more fully, other aspects of the impact of television such as extent of viewing in relation to the functions of television and other media.

The Television Experience

Viewing.--The percentage of parents viewing daytime and evening television in the High-TV and Low-TV communities is presented in Table 1. An analysis of the multi-way contingency table (OMNITAB) conducted on the proportions in the five categories of frequency of viewing, indicated

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Insert Table 1 about here

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that the two towns could be differentiated in terms of overall viewing patterns.[2] In both towns, mothers viewed more frequently than fathers ($\underline{X}^2 = 13.56$, df = 1, $p < .005$) and parents viewed more frequently in the evening than during daytime ($\underline{X}^2 = 27.01$, df = 1, $p < .001$). Overall, parents in the Low-TV town watched television more frequently than their counterparts in the High-TV town ($\underline{X}^2 = 169.29$, df = 1, $p < .001$). With regard to the duration of viewing (obtained from a diary of one weeks television viewing), mothers watched for longer periods during the week than fathers (18.07 vs. 14.94 hrs./wk.) and parents in the High-TV town watched more hours than parents in the Low-TV town (17.62 vs. 15.39 hrs./wk.). The consistent pattern of sex differences in television viewing is the result of mothers having more access to television during the weekday daytime periods; a finding supported by both estimates of frequency of viewing and diary records of the frequency and duration of programmes viewed in the afternoon and early evening. The pattern of lower frequency but longer duration of television viewing in the High-TV vs. Low-TV town, suggests that parents in the High-TV town were somewhat less discriminating in their viewing i.e., they were less interested in turning the

television set on, but once on, they would watch whatever was available.

Programmes preferred.--In Table 2 are the favourite television programmes, nominated by parents in the High-TV and Low-TV towns, classified according to programme types. A multivariate analysis of variance indicated a significant

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Insert Table 2 about here

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effect associated with the Low-TV vs. High-TV towns ($F(13,248) = 5.11$, $p < .001$). Univariate analyses indicated that the differences are the result of Low-TV town parents' greater preferences for drama, documentary, and sport while those in the High-TV town preferred quiz programmes.[3] Within each town, there were consistent sex differences ($F(13,248) = 12.02$, $p < .001$) arising from fathers' greater emphasis on sport, nature, documentary and news programmes, while mothers preferred drama. There was no significant town by sex interaction ($F(13,248) = 1.67$, $p < .06$).

Programmes requested.--The second column of Table 2 provides a description of the types of programmes that parents in the two television towns wanted added to their TV-menu. A multivariate analysis of variance indicated that the patterns of requested programmes differ in the two towns ($F(13,248) = 12.38$, $p < .001$). The main differences arise from Low-TV parents requesting more detective, quiz, movies and comedy, while the High-TV parents wanted more educational and nature programmes. Mothers and fathers differed in their requests ($F(13,248) = 5.30$, $p < .001$) with mothers requesting more movies, quiz, childrens', drama and nature programmes and fathers wanting more sport and educational programmes. There was no significant sex by town interaction ($F(13,248) = 1.20$, $p < .27$).

Experience and taste.--Mothers and fathers differ in their patterns of programme preferences, and these differences appear to be relatively marked across the two television towns. Similarly it has been demonstrated that the types of programmes that parents want added to the available fare are different for the two towns. The third column of Table 2 provides a description of the types of programmes available on the national and commercial channels. The menu for the Low-TV town is restricted to the national channel while persons in the High-TV town may construct a diet from both menus. In general, parents in the Low-TV town want more of the programme types that are not as frequently available on the national channel such as quiz and detective programmes. However, parents in the High-TV town tend to request additional programmes of the type that are readily available on the national channel (e.g., educational programmes). One possible explanation of this discrepancy is that the commercial channel began broadcasting to the High-TV town three years before the inauguration of national channel service in that area. Thus, tastes were shaped, and a loyalty established, which prevented viewers from becoming aware of the programming available on the later-initiated national channel. Indeed, Himmelweit, Oppenheim and Vince (1958) found that children in families where the television set initially could not receive the ITV channel, remained fairly loyal to the BBC programmes following conversion of the television set. Thus, it seems reasonable to suggest that one's "taste" in television programmes can be shaped by one's initial experience with the medium.

Evaluation of Television

Quality.--Parents in all three communities were asked to rate the quality of television, on a four point scale, in terms of three constructs: enjoyable/disappointing, interesting/uninteresting, and exciting/dull. In Table 3 are the percentage of parents who rated television positively (i.e., strongly or moderately, enjoyable/interesting/exciting) on these three dimensions. There were no significant differences between mothers'

Insert Table 3 about here

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and fathers' evaluations but the three towns did significantly differ in parents' degree of positive evaluation on two of the three dimensions: interesting/uninteresting (X^2 = 11.60, df = 2, $p < .01$) and exciting/dull (X^2 = 19.54, df = 2, $p < .001$). Although the majority of parents were favourable towards television, parents in the No-TV community were much more positive in their ratings, on all three scales, than were parents in either the Low-TV or High-TV towns. Indeed, parents in the High-TV town were the least positive (especially on the exciting-dull dimension) of the three television experience levels.

Perceived effects.--When parents were asked to describe what they thought television "had done" (High-TV, Low-TV) or "will do" (No-TV) for them and their community, a wide variety of statements concerning television's role were elicited. The two advantages most frequently voiced by parents in all three communities were that television "increases knowledge of current events" (28%) and "makes life more interesting or fun" (25%). Among parents

in the No-TV community, the advantages most frequently identified, in addition to those above, were "increases family contact" (18%) and "keeps people off the streets" (16%). The major disadvantages stressed by parents in all three towns were that television will reduce social activity (11%) or that television can/will ruin the town's life (7%). These comments about the possible effects of television were reviewed by independent raters and coded, on the basis of the dominant theme, as suggesting that the effects of television are: damaging, good, neutral, or no effect. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 4. It can be noted that parents generally

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Insert Table 4 about here

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considered television to be capable of producing good effects. However, there were significant differences in the degree of positive evaluation among the three communities for both mothers ($\underline{X}^2 = 40.70$, df = 6, $p < .001$) and fathers ($\underline{X}^2 = 19.13$, df = 6, $p < .01$). It would appear that as one moves from the No-TV to the High-TV community, the opinions about the effects of television become more differentiated. Thus, there is a major decrease in the percentage of parents indicating that the effects of television are "neutral" (e.g., 45% of mothers in No-TV town vs. 15% in High-TV town). If the analysis is focused upon only the two television towns in order to compare evaluations based on actual rather than potential (No-TV town) television experience, then it is clear that increasing experience with television is associated with increased negative evaluation of the possible effects of this medium (e.g., 10% of mothers and 27% of fathers in the High-TV town report damaging effects vs. 4% and 14% respectively in the Low-TV town).

Importance.--In order to evaluate the role of television in relation to other means of individual and mass communication, parents were asked to choose the most important medium from among the following: radio, automobile, newspapers, television and telephone. The first choices of mothers and fathers in each of the three communities are shown in Table 5. It can be noted that over all three towns the pattern of choices tended to be

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Insert Table 5 about here

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automobiles first, followed by radio, then television. In general, newspapers are rated higher by fathers than by mothers, while radio and television receive higher ratings by mothers than by fathers. However, the pattern of ratings differs across the three communities. In the No-TV town, the first and second choices are automobiles followed by radio but in the Low-TV town the choices are automobile followed by television. In the High-TV town television again returns to third place in parents' perceived importance. However, despite fluctuations in importance ratings across the three towns, it is clear that television is not the most important medium for keeping in contact with the events of the world. And, this finding parallels the results of two studies of American viewers (Bower, 1973; Steiner, 1963) in which television was rated as less important than a variety of personal convenience items such as refrigerators. Nevertheless, it is interesting that the novelty of television in the Low-TV town is associated with increased importance ratings.

Television's Influence on Life Patterns

The patterns of day-to-day activities in the No-TV town in contrast to the Low-TV and High-TV towns, provide an orientation to the potential effects of the introduction of television. In each community, parents were asked to estimate the amount of time that they normally devote to a variety of leisure activities such as playing sport, drinking in the pub, visiting friends, etc. The data presented in Table 6 are the average number of hours per week that mothers and fathers allocated to 17 categories of

Insert Table 6 about here

leisure activity in each of these three towns. Multivariate analyses of variance, conducted separately for mothers and fathers, indicated a significant effect for the three towns (mothers, $F(34,506) = 5.34$, $p < .001$; fathers, $F(34,466) = 4.43$, $p < .001$). Univariate contrasts based upon standardized discriminant function coefficients indicated five life activities for mothers and eight activities for fathers, which significantly differentiated the three communities.

The five activities that differentiate mothers in the three communities are (in order of coefficient magnitude): radio listening, cinema attendance, listening to records and tapes, theatre attendance and hobbies. The most striking variation is the massive decrease in radio listening when television is available as a competing medium (No-TV, 42 hrs./wk. vs. 14-17 hrs./wk. in the two television towns). Similarly, cinema attendance and listening to records and tapes decrease when television is available in the community.

However, theatre attendance, although minimal, manifests a U-shaped pattern, with higher attendance in both the No-TV and High-TV communities. The fifth activity, hobbies, manifests a linear increase with increasing availability of television.

The eight areas that differentiate the life-styles of fathers in the three towns are (in order of coefficient magnitude): cinema attendance, radio listening, hobbies, watching sport, listening to records and tapes, reading, listening to public talks, and theatre attendance. The activities that decrease with increasing availability of television are cinema attendance, radio listening, theatre attendance, listening to records and tapes and watching sport. Reading and listening to public talks manifest a U-shaped relationship to television availability, while hobbies again manifest a linear increase with increasing access to television.

A summary of television's impact on the life styles of parents in these three communities can be organized around four clusters of activities: alternative media (radio, reading, records and tapes, cinema, theatre, and public talks); social engagement (visiting friends, clubs, organized social activities, outdoor/indoor activities, watching sport, playing sport); individual interests (hobbies, animal care); and time-filling (sitting doing nothing, driving around). The general pattern of parents' involvement in this range of activities does not suggest a straightforward reduction in all categories of activities consequent upon the availability of television. Rather modification seems to be selective in extent and possibly limited in duration. For example, the use of alternative media is highest in the No-TV

town, decreases significantly in the Low-TV town, and manifests a slight recovery in the High-TV town. Similarly, social engagement tends to be highest in the No-TV town and depressed in the two television communities, but again there is evidence of movement toward higher levels in the High-TV town. Time-filling activities tend to be highest in both the No-TV and High-TV towns. Finally, involvement in individual interests (e.g., hobbies) tends to be lowest in the No-TV town with consistent increases in the Low-TV and High-TV communities.

An initial explanation of these results could be based on the principle of "functional equivalence" (Himmelweit, et al., 1958; Belson, 1967) namely, that television is displacing the time previously devoted to similar media-related activities. This seems plausible in the instances of cinema and radio decrements and, to a lesser extent, in reading and listening to music. Similarly, the modest but consistent decrement in several social engagement activities could be explained on the grounds that television's home-based entertainment provides equivalent stimulation to that obtained from watching sport or engaging in outdoor social activities. However, the functional equivalence model would not necessarily predict the increases in individual interest activities such as hobbies. Furthermore, Robinson (1972) also found a range of non-media behaviours that were modified in relation to television ownership. Thus, it might be more useful to consider the introduction and diffusion of television as prompting a functional reorganization (e.g., Brown, Cramond & Wilde, 1974). Indeed, it has been demonstrated in the present study, that even brief experience with television can result in

a modification of the viewer's perception of the functions of other media, as well as changes in the use and evaluation of television.

Television's Functions

The perceived functions of the various media were evaluated by asking parents to rate the similarity of four media (radio, television, newspapers and cinema) and three reference points (children, school and me). These seven items were presented in pairs, each item paired with every other item, and the task required rating the similarity of each of the 21 paired items. The results of a multidimensional scaling analysis (Young & Torgerson, 1967) on the ratings of parents in each of the three communities suggest that even one year's contemporary experience with television can induce a major restructuring of the conception of the functions of television in relation to other media and societal reference points. The major changes are manifested in an increased complexity of perceived functions in the two television towns in contrast to the No-TV community. In the town without television, the various media and reference points are arrayed in two dimensions which may best be described as "entertainment" and "information". In the two television towns, these two straightforward entertainment and information dimensions are clearly perceived but, in addition, a third, combined "information-entertainment" dimension emerges. Furthermore, other cross-community differences in perceived functions appear to be related to differences in the types of television programmes available in the community. For example, in the High-TV community, television is perceived as somewhat similar to cinema in terms of its entertainment function. And, this perception accords with the general

preconceptions of nonviewers such as those in the No-TV town. However, viewers in the Low-TV community perceive television as somewhat more similar to radio, newspapers and school in terms of its information functions. It is possible that this varying perception is a result of the fact that the Low-TV community receives only the national channel; a channel that devotes a large proportion of broadcast time to documentaries, current affairs, and educational programmes.

Conclusions

The role that television plays in the lives of adults is complex and appears to change as a function of one's level of experience with this medium. For example, it has been demonstrated that increasing experience with television, such as that found in the High-TV town, is associated with somewhat more negative evaluations of the perceived effects of television, coupled with the view that television was less exciting and interesting. Also, television was generally considered less important as a means of acquiring interpersonal or mass-mediated information, than radio, automobiles and, to some extent newspapers. The exception to this occurred in the town where television was relatively novel (i.e., Low-TV town) and here television was the most important mass medium. Moreover, this "novelty" effect is reflected in the parents' viewing patterns, with those for whom television is new viewing more often. Similarly, the broad patterns of daily life exhibit a major transformation in association with the extent and duration of television experience. Those for whom television is more novel manifest the greatest

decreases in the use of alternative media. The types of television content available to the community influence both the patterns of viewing and the viewers' perceptions of the functions of the medium. Thus, one's initial and continuing experience with a particular range of television content can produce subtle but potentially important changes in one's conception of television. For example, those whose television diet includes large helpings of news, documentaries and educational programmes (i.e. Low-TV town) are more likely to perceive television as fulfilling an information function, whereas those who have experienced a wide range of programming, for an extended duration, (i.e. High-TV town) in conjunction with their non-viewing peers (No-TV town), are more likely to construe television as entertaining.

In summary, the impact of television is not limited to minor or temporary dislocations in the use of other media but rather, induces a major restructuring of one's conception of the media and life-style patterns.

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Table 1

Parental Television Viewing Patterns During Daytime and Evening Viewing Periods

Frequency of Viewing		Viewing Periods: Daytime High-TV	Daytime Low-TV	Evening High-TV	Evening Low-TV
Every Day	Mothers	16%	38%	52%	62%
	Fathers	7	13	37	45
Most Every Day	Mothers	14	11	41	30
	Fathers	10	8	39	36
Once or Twice/Week	Mothers	28	11	4	6
	Fathers	38	28	24	12
Rarely	Mothers	28	32	3	1
	Fathers	30	31	--	6
Never	Mothers	14	8	--	--
	Fathers	15	20	--	--

Table 2

Television Programmes Most Preferred, Requested and

Available in the High-TV and Low-TV Communities

Programme Type		Preferred Towns		Requested Towns		Available Channels	
		High-TV	Low-TV	High-TV	Low-TV	National	Commercial
Educational	Mothers	1%	-%	10%	4%	34%	3%
	Fathers	-	1	13	3		
Comedies	Mothers	5	2	9	12	2	6
	Fathers	3	4	7	12		
Drama	Mothers	32	54	6	5	6	22
	Fathers	10	24	2	1		
Sport	Mothers	1	1	1	2	4	2
	Fathers	16	20	9	2		
News	Mothers	8	6	3	2	13	12
	Fathers	16	11	8	3		
Documentary	Mothers	11	9	9	3	7	1
		14	19	11	10		
Nature	Mothers	1	-	7	2	3	1
	Fathers	4	3	12	5		
Variety	Mothers	3	2	12	7	3	2
	Fathers	1	1	7	7		
Children's	Mothers	1	1	7	8	23	26
	Fathers	3	1	3	4		
Detective	Mothers	22	15	6	11	2	10
	Fathers	19	10	5	13		
Westerns	Mothers	3	2	7	8	2	5
	Fathers	5	1	8	12		
Movies	Mothers	7	6	13	24	1	3
	Fathers	8	5	10	21		
Quiz	Mothers	6	-	7	12	-	7
	Fathers	2	-	4			

Table 3

Patental Evaluation of the Quality of Television

		Towns		
		High-TV	Low-TV	No-TV
Enjoyable	Mothers	76%	79%	86%
	Fathers	80	82	86
Interesting	Mothers	77	90	92
	Fathers	73	83	88
Exciting	Mothers	52	62	77
	Fathers	52	57	80

Table 4

Parental Evaluation of the Potential Effects of Television

Effects		Towns		
		High-TV	Low-TV	No-TV
Damaging	Mother	10%	4%	3%
	Father	27	14	7
Good	Mother	65	85	51
	Father	61	70	55
No Effect	Mother	10	2	1
	Father	7	9	9
Neutral	Mother	15	8	45
	Father	5	7	29

Table 5

Parental Evaluation of Television in Relation to Other "Important" Things

	Towns							
	High-TV		Low-TV		No-TV		Total of 3	
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
First Choice								
Radio	36%	12%	22%	19%	32%	30%	30%	20%
Automobile	28	58	37	41	38	48	34	49
Newspapers	4	17	6	13	5	5	5	12
Television	24	12	31	21	14	5	23	13
Telephone	8	1	4	6	11	10	8	6

Note: M = mothers, F = fathers.

Table 6

Mean Number of Hours/Week Devoted to Activities by Parents in Three Communities

Activities		Towns		
		High-TV	Low-TV	No-TV
Alternative Media				
Radio Listening	Mothers	17.35	14.24	42.08
	Fathers	9.61	9.04	25.01
Reading	Mothers	6.26	5.70	8.77
	Fathers	6.54	5.31	8.48
Listening to Recorded Music	Mothers	5.28	5.30	15.07
	Fathers	2.79	3.31	11.03
Cinema	Mothers	.36	.35	1.86
	Fathers	.30	.35	1.71
Theatre and Concerts	Mothers	.63	.00	.43
	Fathers	.03	.00	.32
Talks and Debates	Mothers	.35	.11	.26
	Fathers	.53	.15	.29
Social Engagement				
Outdoor Activities	Mothers	1.14	1.42	1.83
	Fathers	1.13	1.49	1.63
Indoor Activities	Mothers	.80	.96	1.00
	Fathers	.68	1.30	1.40
Organized Social Activities	Mothers	.86	.68	.87
	Fathers	1.10	1.06	1.04
Club and Dances	Mothers	.97	.81	.92
	Fathers	.88	.77	1.01
Visiting Friends	Mothers	1.96	2.60	3.46
	Fathers	2.72	1.96	2.34
Playing Sport	Mothers	1.27	1.09	1.01
	Fathers	2.47	1.68	2.20
Watching Live Sport	Mothers	.91	1.08	1.45
	Fathers	.62	1.47	1.78
Time filling				
Sitting at Home Doing Nothing	Mothers	8.35	6.67	7.72
	Fathers	7.06	5.08	6.20
Driving Around	Mothers	1.58	1.26	2.09
	Fathers	1.70	1.32	1.74
Individual Interests				
Hobbies	Mothers	4.60	3.49	2.87
	Fathers	3.41	2.22	.72
Animal Care	Mothers	2.46	1.75	2.12
	Fathers	2.12	1.52	.92

Footnotes

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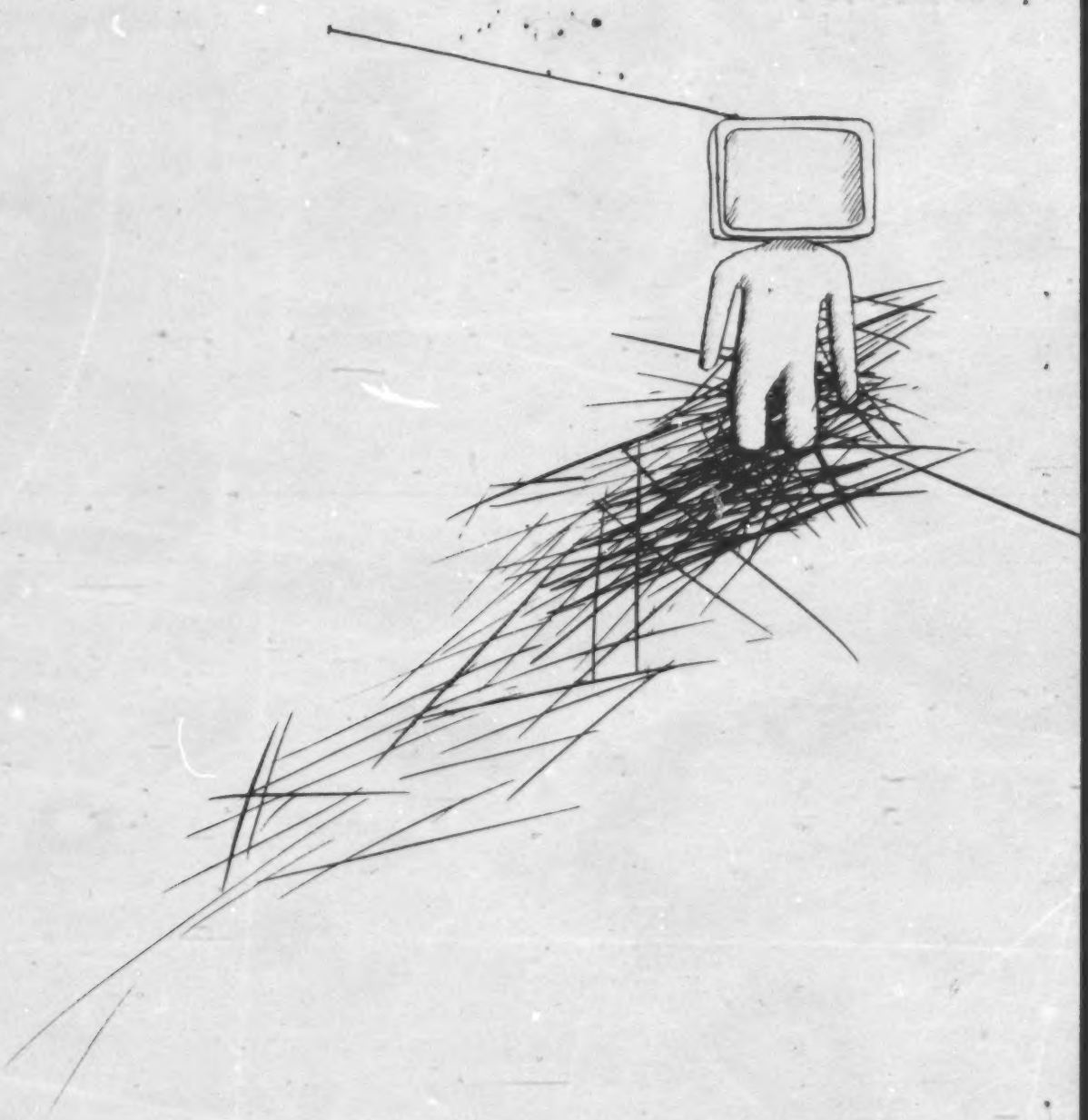
[2]The analysis of variance was accomplished by performing a weighted regression on the contingency table data represented as proportions (OMNITAB) as suggested by Koch, Johnson and Tolley (1972).

[3]The magnitude of the standardized discriminant function coefficient (SDFC) reflects the contribution to the overall F statistic in multivariate analyses of variance. The SDFCs for the Town contrasts for both "Preferred" and "Requested" programme types are: Educational (.06/.44), Comedies (.11/.21), Drama (1.01/.16), Sport (.37/.19), News (.11/.14), Documentary (.49/.06), Nature (.06/.30), Variety (.19/.18), Children's (.01/.02), Detective (.14/.38), Westerns (.01/.11), Movies (.22/.22), and Quiz (.48/.31). The SDFCs for the Sex contrasts for both "Preferred" and "Requested" programme types are: Educational (.08/.51), Comedies (.01/.05), Drama (.19/.33), Sport (.88/.58), News (.20/.16), Documentary (.33/.12), Nature (.38/.27), Variety (.01/.10), Children's (.26/.38), Detective (.13/.18), Westerns (.11/.15), Movies (.13/.46) and Quiz (.07/.38).



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